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ABSTRACT

Research suggests that reading is a written language process that is learned naturally in much the same way as oral language. To test this hypothesis, a descriptive, longitudinal study was conducted of the reading development of eight kindergarten and first grade students who showed environmental print awareness but were not considered readers. Data on the students' progress was collected from taped reading sessions, tests of print familiarity, book handling tasks, reading interviews, teacher interviews, and classroom observations. Based on these findings a model of children's transitions into literacy was developed suggesting that (1) children first learn that print is meaningful through social and contextual interactions with written material; (2) they then begin to apply semantically based transitional reading responses to print to discover its meaning; (3) when they find that these transitional responses do not work on connected discourse, they develop a variety of reading strategies including recognition, prediction, confirmation, and correction to the cuing systems of written language; and (4) some children take much longer to make the transition to effective reading because they do not learn to integrate contextual, graphophonic, or syntactic cues. These findings suggest that understanding children's varying print awareness is essential to effective reading instruction. (MM)

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TRANSITIONS INTO LITERACY

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TRANSITIONS INTO LITERACY

Ours is an increasingly print-oriented society. Bormouth (1979), who studied the growth of volume and monetary value of literacy in the United States, reported that reading and writing related activities of adults unequivocally have increased in the last decade. The need to interact with print is so pervasive that our entire educational system is based upon the acquisition of reading and writing (Karlin, 1971).

Children come to school at age five or six with a wide variety of reading experiences. Some have books to read or have books read to them at home, at day care centers, or at nursery schools. Many interact with meaningful print in the environment, such as on milk cartons, television commercials, instructions for games, and mail from relatives. Others learn about the alphabet and words while watching SESAME STREET on television. Some children receive direct reading instruction before school; however, most interact with print in a natural, almost incidental manner (Goodman, 1980). During these print interactions, children learn that print is carrying a message and some of these children begin to read on their own (Smith, 1976). Others do not. All children bring varying experiences, attention, interests, and abilities to deal with print when they enter school.

However, when children enter school, especially those

from minority and lower socio-economic backgrounds, they are taught to read as if they have little or no experience with or knowledge of books or print.

There is an increasing new body of research literature which supports the belief that this is not so (Goodman and Goodman, 1979; Doake, 1979; Harste, Burke, and Woodward, 1982; Sulzby, 1981a, 1981b; and Ferreiro, 1982). It is the intent of the study described in this article to build on and extend this knowledge base.

Although the term "new" is being applied to this research view of reading development, the theory on which it is based can be traced back to the writings of Iredell (1898) and Huey (1908).

A key notion of this view is that reading is a written language process which is learned naturally in much the same way as oral language. The emphasis of researchers who hold this view is to study individual children, to ask what they know about reading and to see how that knowledge can be most naturally extended.

The focus is on children, even very young children, as active participants in their language learning. Children become aware of print when it serves a function for them and when they use print in personal, contextualized ways.

This descriptive longitudinal study was designed to contribute to the growing base of information about beginning reading by observing children's developing knowledge about written language in a public school

classroom. Its major focus was on the relationship of three aspects of print awareness - reading in the environment, book handling, and metalinguistic awareness - to the devloping process of reading connected discourse. As researchers, educators, and parents begin to understand these relationships, the information can be utilized to help make transitions into reading in school easier for children. By making literacy in school an extension of natural language learning at home, beginning reading instruction could improve. In addition parents could be helped to see their roles more clearly in the development of literacy in their children.

THE CLASSROOM AND SUBJECTS

The classroom selected for this study was a combination kindergarten-first grade in a magnet school which is open to students from varied ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds, in a medium sized city in the Southwest.

The teacher was selected because he employs a whole language, integrated curriculum approach and does not usually focus on the teaching of isolated specific reading skills out of the context of language use. His classroom objectives include children having a positive and meaningful school experience, a variety of learning situations, and active participation in their learning. To

achieve these goals, children are encouraged each day to choose from a variety of center activities, such as graphing the number of vegetables in front of them and later cooking vegetable stew, writing stories for publication in class books, making pinatas from papier-mache or writing in journals.

Reading activities in this classroom are both direct and incidental. Direct reading experiences occur when a small group reads along with the teacher in NEAT AND SCRUFFY, a Scholastic Big Book (Gale 1975), as they write and read their own stories, or as they read along with an audio tape of WHAT DO YOU DO WITH A KANGAROO? (Mayer 1973) at the listening center. Students read incidentally when they put their name cards into the pockets of the center chart; when they need instructions for a game or the recipe for tamales, or when they peruse the class record chart to see how many days it will take before the chicks will hatch. Print and reading materials are always available in the classroom as part of many ongoing activities. The children thus have many opportunities to read and write during the school day.

The teacher's belief that children need to be in control of their own literacy learning and his classroom methodology allowed for the collection of naturalistic research data from the children. The curriculum experiences in this classroom provide children with the opportunity to expand their knowledge of written language

in a natural, home-like condition.

The criteria for choosing the eight research subjects from the twenty students in the class was that they have beginning knowledge of environmental print, according to "Signs of the Environment" (Y. Goodman 1975), but that they were not considered readers by their parents or teachers. Four subjects were subsequently selected who exhibited a high degree of environmental print awareness and four who showed a low degree of awareness.

THE STUDY

This one year descriptive study was designed to examine the beginning development of reading in eight kindergarten and first grade children. Detailed case studies were employed to describe each subject's print awareness, which includes reading of connected discourse, awareness of environmental print, book handling knowledge and metalinguistic awareness. Four major procedures which are decribed in this paper were used to provide data for each case study: 1) Audio Taped Reading Sessions; 2) Signs of the Enviornment Task; 3) Book Handling Task, and 4) Reading Interview.

Additonal data used to provide supportive background information on the subjects emergent reading were also collected through regularly scheduled Monthly Teacher Interviews, Monthly Ethnographic Classroom Observations,

and Parent Surveys.

AUDIO-TAPED READING SESSIONS

Each month the subjects read two selections, one from trade books that were available in their classroom and one from their personally written journals. The sessions were audio-taped in the school library, where it was quiet. Subjects read each selection with no assistance. When children did not want to read or indicated they could not read, they were encouraged to read whatever they could or to "pretend" they were reading. Statements such as, "Pretend you are reading this story," or "It is important for me to know what children do when they read hard stories; please try to show me what to do," were used to encourage their reading. At the beginning of the study none of the subjects were traditionally-defined readers. It was anticipated that as the study progressed some would become effective readers whose developing reading could be anlayzed by traditional miscue anlaysis; while others would not. This turned out to be true.

The reading miscues of children who were in very early stages of reading of connected discourse that was not yet analyzable by conventional miscue procedure, were analyzed by a category system developed by the researcher during the study. The categories selected emerged from careful and systematic observation of these young subjects' reading

behavior. Audio-taped recordings of the subjects' reading attempts were examined and re-examined and analysis of their miscues were used in the inductive development of the categories. These categories are presented in detail because other researchers suggest similar categories occur in their research of the same aged children (Sulzby 1981b) and the categories seem to be important for consideration by teachers in early childhood.

The CATEGORIES OF EMERGENT READING include:

1. NO RESPONSE. Two types of non-response are noted in this category. The first is a matter-of-fact refusal, usually stated "I don't know how to read."

   Example: Sandy refused to read the new story, "One, Two, Three, Four" (Considine and Schuler 1966) because he said it was "too complicated."

   The second type occurs when the subjects first attempt to read and then in some other way indicate that refusal is based on their beliefs that they are not able to decode the print in front of them.

   Example: Eric attempted to read the title of ONE SNAIL AND ME (McLeod 1961) and could not. The researcher could hear his subvocal attempts to "sound out" the print. He was guided to the first page and again could not read the print. He seemed to be near tears and did not continue.

2. AUDIENCE RESPONSE. Subjects in this category also do not deal with the connected discourse in the book, however they use some mechanism to either direct attention from the task or to cope with it.

   Example: Miguel read, "This is a windy day," for each page of "One, Two, Three, Four" (Considine and Schuler 1966). This is a game playing response in which he repeats the same pattern in

order to get the task over.

3. SEMANTIC USE OF PICTURES TO TELL STORIES. In this category subjects tell stories based on the pictures in the book. The focus is not on the written text.

   Example: Fernando "read" an elaborate story based on the semantic use of pictures in "One, Two, Three, Four" (Considine and Schuler 1966) although he did use print to read the numerals.

   TEXT: In the second month of the year, I found 2 white kittens, and they followed me home.

   FERNANDO'S RESPONSE: The little girl saw 2 little kittens. They had green eyes. They were the same way. They even, they were the same size. They were 2.

4. SENSE OF STORY. Subjects combine semantic interpretation of pictures with knowledge of how stories are organized and the special language of children's literature in this category. One example is reading the beginning of a story as, "Once upon a time." Another example is the insertion of story-like adjectives, as in, I

   have six kangaroos."

   Example: Troy's unique sense of story and assistance from the pictures helped him read "One, Two, Three, Four" (Considine and Schuler 1966).

   TEXT: In the first month of the year, I found 1 brown pony, and he followed me home.

   TROY'S RESPONSE: One day when a little girl was walking out she saw a pony. She looked at it and then (turns page before he completed reading).

5. METALINGUISTIC RESPONSE. In this category subjects use their knowledge of language to analyze specific features of text rather than reading for meaning. Examples include: (a) "I

can read this because it starts with an A like my name"; (b) "Oh, this page is easy. It says 'son' like in Jacobson" (child's last name). Troy stopped reading NEAT AND SCRUFFY (Gale 1975), to apply this metalinguistic analysis to the word boy:

TEXT: One day they had a baby boy.

TROY'S RESPONSE: They had a baby boy. Boy. In fact, that's how you spell "book." No, you need another B. No, you need a K. It's almost like B. B two more circles, line there for K (uses fingers to outline B and K).

6. HOLISTIC REMEMBERING. At this stage subjects use the integration of written text, illustration, and memory of the text in the reading of the story. Doake (1981) calls this reading-like behavior. Those stories with which the children are most familiar usually elcit this response.

Example: Terry used a complete syntactic and semantic unit from each page of ONE SNAIL AND ME (McLeod 1961).

TEXT: Well, I do have a snail
1 snail
Makes a beautiful
bubbly, silvery trail
on the edge of the tub.

TERRY'S RESPONSE: I have a little snail and it comes with me on the edge of the tub.

7. CONTEXT OF SITUATION. This behavior was demonstrated most vividly when the subjects read from their own personally written journals. They would recall the content within which they had written the specific page or pages they were attempting to read. While it might be presumed that the situational context of earlier readings of professionally authored books also would trigger memory of the text, no observable responses were recorded to support this belief.

Example: Flipping through his journal, Miguel went to a page toward the end and read, "I like

Tommy and he likes me." Tommy, the younger brother of a boy in the classroom, had recently visited and played with Miguel. Miguel did not read any other page from his journal.

8. ATTEMPT TO APPLY SOME WRITTEN LANGUAGE STRATEGIES TO TEXT. In this category children over-rely on one of the three language systems. For example, subjects may focus on the graphophonic correspondence with less focus on the syntactic or semantic.

   Example: Beth read the following from ONE SNAIL AND ME (McLeod 1961)

   TEXT: There are things to do alone in a tub.

   BETH'S RESPONSE: Three (R) are $thingas to do $ony it works on-n tub.

Beth miscued on the first word, "there," and although the substitution of "three" for "there" does not make sense, she did not go back to correct. As she continued her reading of the whole sentence, it is not semantically or syntactically acceptable, yet Beth permitted it to stand uncorrected.

9. CONVENTIONAL READING THAT IS ANALYZABLE BY MISCUE ANALYSIS.

   Example: In the patterned "One, Two, Three, Four" (Considine and Schuler 1966), which Eric had not encountered before, he miscued on the same word all they way through the story which he never corrected:

   In the third month of the year,
   I found 3 blue jays
   $flaud
   and they followed me home.

   At different points in the text he also substituted these real words for "followed:" flewed, flurried, flood, flawed, and fleed.

As subjects like Eric began more conventional readings

of the text, readings and retellings were analyzed by standard miscue procedure (Goodman and Burke 1980).

SIGNS OF THE ENVIRONMENT OF TASK

Three levels of contextualization of reading environmental signs were presented to the subjects at the beginning of the study and at the end. "Signs of the Environment" is a script written by Y. Goodman (1975) to learn more about children's reactons to the print they see around them every day. The selection of subjects, as mentioned above, was made on the basis of reading these signs. A second presentaion of "Signs of the Environment" was given at the end of the study to the selected subjects in order to observe development and to compare to the subjects' developing reading of books and metalinguistic awareness. Each of these interview sessions was audio-taped and field notes were made.

1. The first level of "Signs of the Environment" used in this study involves asking open-ended questions about two-dimensional print in context. Examples of this level include: a replica of the hexagonal, traditional stop sign, including the word "stop" on the red and white background, or the whole wrapper from a McDonald's hamburger. These items are separately presented, pasted on an 8 1/2" x 11 card. The purpose of this task is to gain insight into the subject's use of print in an environmentally embedded context. In order to achieve this purpose, the subjects are asked these three questions: What does this say?; How do you know?; Where does it say_____?

2. The next asks the same questions about the items used earlier with only the logo or familiar graphic unit remaining intact. For example only the familiar white script of Coca Cola on a solid red background is retained on an 8 1/2 x 11 card rather than a picture of an entire Coca Cola can. The purpose of this task is to gain insight into the subject's use of print one step removed from the enviromentally embedded context.

3. The third level examines the subjects' reactions to the same items used earlier but presented in manuscript form, written units which have no familiar contextual cues present. An example is Crest, written in black manuscript letters.

The purpose of the gradual abstraction of familiar environmental print is to determine the extent of the children's responses to print in different situational contexts and to determine what knowledge children demonstrate about print in these different settings.

The analysis of this data followed procedures developed by Goodman and Altwerger (1981) and later added to by Y. Goodman, Haussler, Bird, and Altwerger (1980). While it is not possible to illustrate the complete coding system an example of responses to each question mentioned earlier is provided.

QUESTION 1. "What does this say?" Verbal, nonverbal, and avoidance responses to this question were analyzed.

Example of one subject's verbal response:

Fernando reveals his knowledge of wordness when he corrects a one word generic response, that is a generic label for a specific product, to a two word closely related item:

ITEM: Raisin Bran

R: What's that say?
F: I don't know. Cereal.
R: O.K. Can you show me? Where does that say cereal?
F: (Sweeps finger left to right under Raisin, stops and repeats) Corn. (Then sweeps left to right under Bran) Flakes.

QUESTION 2: "How do you know?" This question was asked in order to gain supportive and additional information. Verbal and non-verbal responses to this question were analyzed.

Examples of some of the verbal responses include personal experience, such as "I buyed some;" reference to other persons; ego involved, such as "I like it;" fantasy such as subjects constructing an imaginary story for an explanation; and whole item (animistic), such as, "Because it's cereal."

ITEM: Stop

R: Tell me some of the things that help you know that says "stop."
B: Because it's red and white and a stop sign is printed on it.

QUESTION 3: "Where does it say_____?" In response to this question the subjects' directed pointing was categorized to examine directionality and attention to main or supporting print.

BOOK HANDLING TASK

The data for this task follows the procedures in CONCEPTS ABOUT PRINT TESTS (Clay 1973) using Clay's two books, SAND (1973) and STONES (1979b) with the subjects. These print tests originally were designed for five-year-old school entrants in New Zealand. Clay used SAND and later STONES to diagnose early reading difficulties. She notes, "The test reflects changes in reading skill during the first year of instruction" (Clay 1973, p. 10).

Clay's (1973, 1979a) scoring procedures were used with both STONES and SAND. Each had 24 items, which were scored with one point for a correct response and zero for an incorrect one. Scores were then compared to Clay's Stanine scores, established by contrasting scores of 100 New Zealand urban children in 1966 with the scores of a similar group of 320 in 1968 (Clay 1973, p. 10). Score comparisons

in the current study were used to gauge the individual child's growth thoughout the school year, however a cross-sectional analysis of the eight students also was done to note differences in book handling knowledge. Although the statistical information was used in comparing data, descriptive information is most significant and was analyzed to gain information about the subjects' known and unknown concepts about book handling. Clay (1979a, p. 19) wrote, "The test's greatest value is diagnostic. Items should uncover concepts yet to be learned or confusions to be untangled."

READING INTERVIEW

An interview with each child from Y. Goodman's (1975) "Signs of the Environment" was administered at the beginning and end of the study to determine changes in the metalinguistic awareness of the subjects. Questions were asked to probe the subjects' knowledge of their own reading processes. Examples of these questions include: Can you read? What can you read? How do you read? Did someone teach you to read? Each session was audio-taped and field notes were made.

Subjects' responses to this task, as well as their metalinguistic responses from the "Signs of the Environment" task and Book Handling task are classified by

Dybdahl's (1982) "Categories for the Classification of Metalinguistic Data." Her categories include: the use of language; developing metalinguistics; conscious metalinguistics; and scientific metalinguistics. Examples of each category described in the current study are presented here.

1. Use of Language. Miguel's responses to the Reading Interviews, "Signs of the Environment," and Book Handling were reviewed to categorize his metalinguistic awareness. Each of his responses to these procedures was observed to determine if he made any metalinguistic or analytic statements and on which tasks he made them. Miguel made very few analytical statements about his language. He often would respond, "I don't know. You tell me," or would employ avoidance behaviors, such as repeating the same sentence over and over again, just so he would have some response.

2. Developing Consciousness. Troy's response provides the following example.

R: What's this for? (Points to .)
T: That's for the end of a word.
R: What's this for? (Points to ,)
T: It's not for the ends of words, though it's for middles of words instead.
R: What are these things? (Points to ")
T: Oh, these are different from those cause those are just one. They're for in the words.

3. CONSCIOUS AWARENESS. The following example is provided by Jessica.

R: How did you learn to read?
J: Practice. My mother and father read me books. Then I just started to read.

FINDINGS

The conclusion of the study based on the analysis of the tasks described above may be treated as hypotheses because the statements have been based on the careful observations and analysis of a total of eight subjects in a whole language classroom. These results need further research to substantiate that other children develop similarly. Following the conclusions additional interpretations will be presented.

CONCLUSIONS: ENVIRONMENTAL PRINT AWARENESS

1. All subjects are aware of environmental print in its appropriate context.

2. No differences in types of responses are seen between subjects evaluated as environmentally print aware as compared with those developing awareness to print in context; however when print is decontextualized from familiar environmental items, differences are seen.

3. Subjects who are less print aware at the beginning of the study in September make proportionately greater gains during the academic year; however print aware subjects still show greater print awareness at the end of the study.

4. Environmental print awareness at all levels of contextualization is based on experience with print in situational context.

5. Subjects know that the main print, such as CARNATION MILK, carries the message for

environmental signs at all levels of contextualization.

6. When teachers draw children's attention to the fact that reading environmental print IS reading, children believe they are readers. Such an attitude on the part of readers provides transitions to literacy.

7. Environmental print awareness is not an indicator of eventual success in school reading for all children.

Children are aware of print in the environment. Most children come into contact with environmental print at a very early age. It is on packages of food that they eat and games that they play. It is also on television, mail from relatives, grocery lists, and checkbooks. They deal with print in the context of their everday lives, usually not separating out the print. For some children, interaction with environmental print goes no further until much later. For these children, awareness of signs is not seen as reading, and no further use seems to be made of it in the beginning reading process by the reader. Other children may ask questions about environmental print or have letters or words pointed out to them, which sparks a curiosity about other environmental print.

CONCLUSIONS: BEGINNING READING IN TRADE BOOKS AND JOURNALS.

1. In a reading environment like the one in this study, students grow in their knowledge of reading connected discourse.

2. Children use a variety of reading cues and strategies which are not specifically taught to

them. Among these are the strategies of prediction, confirmation, and correction.

3. Many children are read to from infancy while others are not read to until their parents find out about its importance when the children begin preschool or even kindergarten.

4. When five- and six-year-olds who have had experience with connected discourse attempt to read a new text, they use a number of transitional reading responses to gain meaning. These include: semantic use of picture; knowledge of the structure of language (English); "sense of story"; metalinguistic awareness and integration of some print cues.

5. When these same transitional readers attempt to read text with which they are familiar, they also employ the transitional response of holistic remembering. Holistic remembering is an integration of semantic use of pictures, children's own knowledge of language in books, and their experience with a given text.

6. Context of situation is an additional response category employed by transitional readers when reading their personal journals.

7. While reading from journals, five- and six-year-olds give more "no responses" than they do in reading trade books, because they are more familiar with the particular connected discourse and know that they do not know what it says.

8. Children are able to employ more effective reading strategies in their own personal journals before they are able to employ them in trade books.

9. Transitional readers are able to read especially meaningful pages from their journals (and other text) before they are able to read less memorable entries in their own journals.

10. The closer children's writing is to conventional forms, particularly spacing and spelling, the more integrated and effective their reading of journals.

Some children are introduced to books as early as they

are to environmental print. Middle-class mothers in this study all reported that their children were read to "from six months" or "from the time they sat up." For these children, being read to became part of the family interaction; it became something they expected to be able to do. Similar to their experiences with environmental print, the context of the book reading situation carried meaning for them. They may have associated reading with quiet time with Mother or Father. Parent reading techniques can influence what the child is learning. It is possible, for instance, that Sandy, whose mother reported that she was most interested in the beautiful art in picture books, was not as focused on print as some of the other children. Most children who are read to from an early age eventually attempt to read familiar books on their own. As they make these reading attempts, children begin with semantic responses - they know that their story books make sense.

CONCLUSIONS: BOOKHANDLING

1. Subjects with a high degree of preschool book experience demonstrate more book handling knowledge than subjects with less preschool book experience.

2. Subjects with more preschool book experience become better readers in kindergarten and first grade than do subjects with less preschool book experiences.

3. Subjects with more preschool book experience know

more when they come to school about the reading of print and the teaching register than do subjects with less preschool book experiences.

4. Subjects with more preschool book experiences show proportionately greater gains during a year of instruction in both the reading of print and the teaching register than do subjects with less preschool book experience.

All aspects of book handling knowledge are important to reading at school. In fact, in traditional classrooms where reading from one type of text is a large part of the daily activities, book handling knowledge may play an even more important role than in a whole language classroom where a teacher provides a wide variety of functional written language for children and legitimizes its use.

Environmental print awareness, the initial indicator for selecting subjects, was a much less successful indicator of success in reading connected text at school than was book handling knowledge, because success in environmental print awareness is based on experience with environmental print in its natural context. Likewise, book handling knowledge compares to reading connected discourse because of their common roots in book experiences and the similarity of the tasks themselves.

CONCLUSIONS: METALINGUISTIC AWARENESS

1. No clear patterns emerge when comparing the metalinguistic awareness of students who demonstrate at least some analysis of their language to their beginning text reading.

Metalinguistic ability may occur in combination with ability to read connected discourse; however, there is no clear cause-effect relationship. In this study, one of the best readers was in transition to conscious metalinguistics, the most abstract level of metalinguistic awareness, and the lowest reader was using language, not analyzing it. Other than these two subjects, no other clear patterns emerged between metalinguistic awareness and reading conncected text. A variety of other factors, including the subjects' personalities, interest in the task, and willingness to risk mistakes, may be involved in their metalinguistic responses.

CONCLUSIONS: TRANSITIONS FROM READING ENVIRONMENTAL PRINT TO READING CONNECTED DISCOURSE.

1. Transitions into literacy follow broad developmental patterns, yet are variable for each child.

2. Children come to school with some degree of print awareness.

3. Early experience with print is important in learning to read.

4. Classroom enviroments which are closest to the children's home environments provide the best bridges for learning about print.

5. Providing a context for learning about print is especially important for emergent readers.

6. Children use semantic or meaning responses first in attempting to read.

7. When children begin to focus productively on print for meaning, they attempt to integrate syntactic,

graphophonic, and semantic language cues.

TRANSITIONS INTO LITERACY - A MODEL

One of the results of this study was the development of a model of the transitions into literacy. In their transitions into literacy, children grow from their own roots of literacy eventually to become effective readers (Goodman, 1980). A proposed model for these transitions is presented in Figure 1, the discussion of which is based on findings from this study, on related research, and on knowledge of child development. The model highlights children's changing relationships with print in a particular context as children develop toward effective reading of connected discourse.

Children are first aware of print in context, whether the context is books or the environment. Through social and contextual interactions with print, very young children know that print is meaningful, and they first attempt to apply semantically based transitional reading responses to the print. Their focus is on the meaning of whatever they are reading. Some young children have a degree of awareness of the physical or graphic aspects of print, but this generally is limited, as is observed in their infrequent use of analytical print related reading responses.

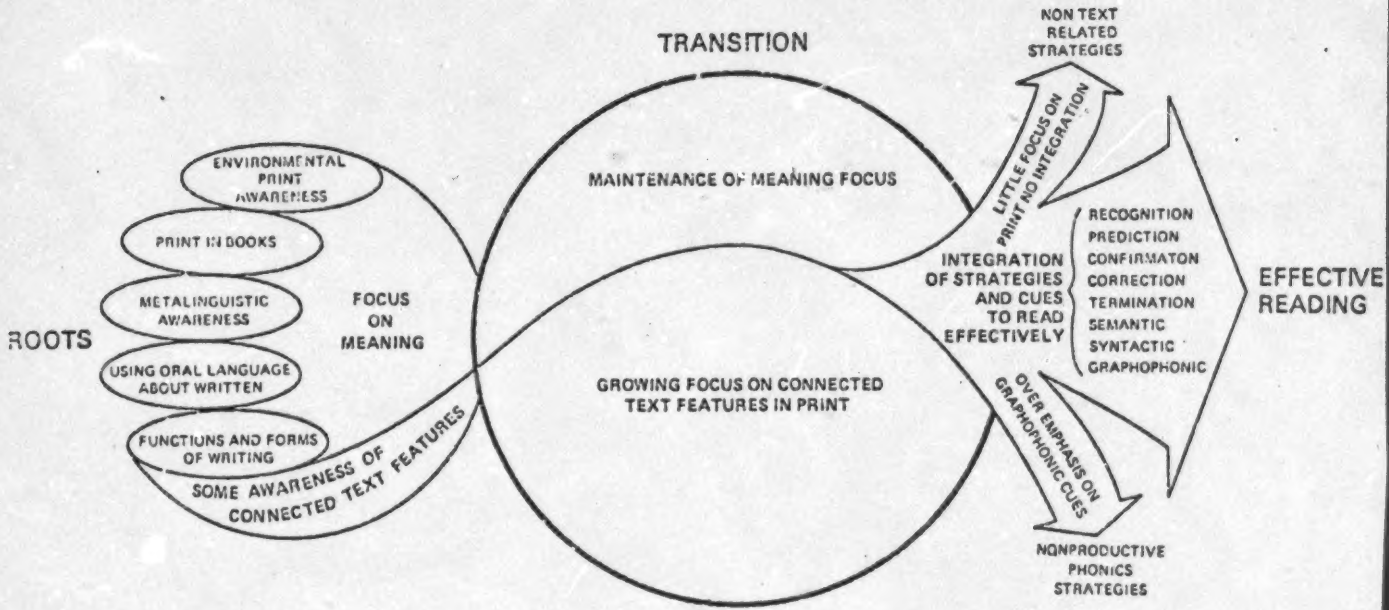

Figure 1. Transitions Into Literacy.

Children begin to focus on print as they learn it conveys the meaning, especially in the connected discourse of trade books. As children discover that their transitional reading responses do not work on connected discourse, they attempt to apply a variety of reading strategies including recognition, prediction, confirmation, and correction to the cuing systems of written language. Experience with story book reading, especially where interacting with significant others, enhances this development. Most children seem to need time to integrate their reading strategies and their use of the language cuing systems so that they work together effectivley. Some children temporarily lose their focus on meaning. In these children, the use of graphophonic cues is clearly observable especially when no other information is available to them, such as when children are not familiar with the text or it is too difficult for them.

With increasing interaction with meaningful texts, children learn more about how to make sense out of written language, although they may not be able to analyze and talk about their reading. Most children become effective readers who, by age five or six, focus on print as connected discourse, integrate the semantic, syntactic, and graphophonic cuing systems, and use appropriate reading strategies to gain meaning. However, some children take much longer or have difficulty in making the transition to effective reading because they do not learn to integrate

the language cuing systems. For some, this may not occur during kindergarten or first grade at all. Children who overuse the graphophonic and syntactic cues end up "sounding out" or "learning Primerese," as Forester (1975) calls it. They do not self-correct miscues, and they appear to view reading as a word-calling exercise. Other children who do not integrate the cuing systems, because they do not focus on print at all, continue to tell stories about connected discourse which bear little resemblance to the text.

To summarize, as most children age five or six begin to read at school, they employ one of these three ways to deal with print:

1. Integration of the cuing systems to read effectively;
2. No integration of cues with little or no focus on print;
3. No integration of cues with overuse of graphophonic cues.

How will teachers know how to expand the reading abilities of each of these types of beginning readers? Knowledge of students' background information and views of reading are crucial. Information like that collected in this study provides us with understanding of each child's developing print awareness because gearing instruction to children's reading needs is more than pedagogic jargon, it is necessary to help each child become an effective reader.

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